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ABSTRACT

Originally developed as part of a project for the Department of Defense Schools (DoDDS) system, this learning package on the relationship between reading and writing is designed for teachers who wish to upgrade or expand their teaching skills on their own. The package includes an overview of the project; a comprehensive search of the ERIC database; a lecture giving an overview on the topic; copies of existing ERIC/RCS publications on the topic; a set of guidelines for completing a goal statement, a reaction paper, and an application project; and an evaluation form. (SR)

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*Learning Package #40*

# The Relationship Between Reading and Writing

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## OVERVIEW

ERIC/RCS Learning Packages contain just what the practitioner needs for staff development workshops. Workshops can begin with an overview lecture , continue through readings and discussion material, and end with research projects and an annotated bibliography for further research.

Each learning package contains (1) a topic overview: a four-to-six page stage-setter; (2) in most cases, a digest of research: an ERIC summary of research on the topic written by a specialist; (3) a goal statement and a survey form; and (4) an extensive annotated bibliography of ERIC references.

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# THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN READING AND WRITING

by Norma Decker Collins

*Lecture*

(All references are fully documented in the enclosed bibliography, or in a reference list following the lecture)

The 1980's have produced several education documents addressing the issue of reading and writing instruction. Four national assessments in reading published under the title of the *Reading Report Card* (Educational Testing Service, undated) suggested that the improvement of our national state of literacy must occur by training in higher-order reading skills. Students must learn to develop personal interpretations of what they read, and to question and think about the material drawn from their reading experience. On the heels of the *Reading Report Card* came the *Writing Report Card* (Applebee, Langer, & Mullis, 1986) which addressed the teaching of writing. The *Writing Report Card* stated that students must be asked to think about information, organize their thoughts, and express them coherently. According to the report, students at all levels were deficient in higher level skills.

The *Reading Report Card* and the *Writing Report Card* followed several other reports, including *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983), the Carnegie

Report (Branscomb, 1986), the Holmes Report (Lanier, 1986), and the Governors' Report on Education (Alexander, 1986). Presented in each document was a discussion of the need for improvement in the instruction of reading and writing.

Over 90 years ago a similar report appeared. In 1892, the National Education Association appointed the Committee of Ten to consider what the curriculum of secondary schools should be. The following goals were announced at the Conference on English in 1892 for English instruction in grades one through twelve (Ohman, 1986):

> To enable the pupil to understand the expressed thoughts of others and to give expression to thoughts of his own; and to cultivate a taste for reading; to give the pupil some acquaintance with good literature, and to furnish him with the means of extending that acquaintance. (p. 12)

The report by the Committee of Ten insisted that the two goals of composition and literature "should never be disassociated in the mind of the teacher and their mutual dependence should be constantly present to the mind of the pupils" (p. 12). The position of the Committee reflected the view that the unity of reading and writing was as important 90 years ago as it is today.

One connection of reading and writing discussed in several recent studies (Smith, 1982; Wittrock, 1983) linked the two processes on the basis of meaning construction. Reading was not viewed as receptive and passive, but rather as active and generative. Such a model implied that students are capable and

responsible for constructing word and image relationships between what they know and what they read and write. According to Wittrock (1983), reading and writing share important generative processes. Writing involves constructing meaning; reading requires a reconstruction of meaning. It is the understanding of the relationship among the parts of the text and between the text and the learners' own experiences that allows for meaning construction. Teaching that requires student generation of relations among these components contributes to comprehending a text (Wittrock & Carter, 1975).

Researchers Tierney and Pearson (1983) supported a similar position. According to these authors, readers and writers draw on their background experiences as they compose a text. There is an ongoing negotiation to arrive at meaning. Tierney and Pearson, along with Graves and Hansen (1984) viewed both reading and writing as acts of composing. Learners constructed and reconstructed ideas that reflected the same cognitive process. Frank Smith (1982) contended that the learner actively contributes to the learning process--relating new information to what is already known and finding answers to cognitive questions. This view was supported by educator Paulo Freire (cited in Berthoff, 1986) who conceived of education as a pedagogy of knowing. Central to Friere's pedagogy was the theme of active learning presented by Smith (1982). Students shared in the learning process and were

empowered by a critical consciousness of themselves as meaning makers. Freire supported a position promulgated by Squire (1983) which suggested that it is language that provides the tool for meaning construction.

According to several reviews (Goodman & Goodman, 1983; Smith, 1982; Troyka, 1986), reading and writing are reciprocal acts, and one is diminished without orientation toward the other. Reading was seen as a process of seeking meaning in what is written; writing was the means by which reading came to be (Holt & Vacca, 1984). Smith (1982) stated, "Reading and writing are not mutually exclusive activities in the brain and should not be in the classroom either" (Preface). Goodman and Goodman (1983) agreed with Smith that reading and writing are interdependent processes, necessary and beneficial to one another. Researchers Chall and Jacobs (1984) postulated that not only is writing important for itself, but "the strong relation of writing and reading and language suggests that the development of writing may also enhance reading and language" (p. 67).

Lucy Calkins (1983), also a writing researcher, pointed out the interdependence of reading and writing in her research in elementary schools. In her book *Lessons From a Child* (1983) Calkins stated that she intended to deal with the composing process of elementary writers, but could not realistically ignore the composing process of readers. Calkins reported in her research

with Graves (1983), "There was no way I could watch writing without watching reading" (p. 153). Calkins calculated that some students spent as much as 30 percent of their writing time reading.

Reading and writing are part of the world of children. Most school language arts programs, however, do not help students develop a personal, functional need for being language users themselves. Too often in schools, the purpose of language is to satisfy an external demand and not an internal, expressive or communicative need (Goodman & Goodman, 1983). Wittrock (1983) posited that when students attributed learning to other people or to external factors, the efforts they invested declined. Graves (1983) suggested that to maximize student effort, students must assume ownership for their reading and writing processes.

Stotsky (1983) synthesized the empirical data that discussed the interrelatedness of reading and writing. A relationship between reading and writing was supported by a number of studies. For example, Lunsford (1978) found that remedial writers were also poor readers. In his pilot study of 92 students enrolled in remedial English at Ohio State, Lunsford correlated standardized reading scores, A.C.T. scores, a syntactic maturity measure, a writing sample, and a case study to support his conclusion that poor writers were also poor readers. Lunsford called for the reunion of reading and writing instruction in remedial classrooms. These findings were similar to those of Grobe and

Grobe (1977) who found that reading skills were correlated with writing ability in college freshmen. Grobe and Grobe sought to determine that reading and writing ability were systematically related and knowledge of one was a valid predictor of the other. The researchers sampled 186 college freshmen at Rutgers University to test their assumption that reading ability and writing ability were related. The researchers found a significant relationship between reading ability and writing ability in college freshmen.

In a longitudinal study beginning with kindergartners in 1963, Loban (1976) found similar results. Loban studied the stages of growth of children's language from kindergarten through grade 12. He began with 338 subjects in the Oakland, California, public school system and ended with 211 subjects who graduated from high schools in that district. Using annual oral interviews, written compositions, reading tests, IQ tests, listening tests, and teacher ratings, among other measures, Loban found a strong positive correlation between speech, reading, writing, and listening. Students in the lowest and highest groups in writing fell into the respective low and high groups in reading.

The literature supported the interrelatedness of reading and writing. Students who read well also wrote well. As Loban (1976) discovered, a relationship clearly existed between reading and writing, and it became even more pronounced as students moved

through the grades. These findings were not surprising if one acknowledged that necessary to all reading and writing is skill in processing language (Squire, 1983). A study by Applebee and Langer (1984) reported that children learned language in the process of using it in supportive contexts. With assistance and encouragement, children gradually made knowledge their own (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978). Purposeful interactions with language led to language proficiency. Teaching skills in relation to the whole unit of meaning allowed language learners to practice using language.

It was as Squire (1983) stated, "One does not learn to read by completing an endless series of discrete practices on isolated skills or learn to write by facing endless sequences of itty, bitty sentences and paragraphs" (p. 585). This position was echoed by Moffett and Wagner (1983) who stated that composition is not the sum of topic sentences, transitions and supporting details, and that comprehension is not the sum of vocabulary words and inferences. The parts are not discrete and fixed, but relative and interactive. According to Moffett and Wagner, reading and writing involve selecting, abstracting, and questioning. Students need each to succeed in the other.

Moffett and Wagner posited that to compose is to comprehend. This was supported by Collins (1979) who found that adding a writing component to a remedial reading program

significantly improved the reading comprehension of college freshmen. Many teachers of composition have long known that the development of writing skills enhances the development of reading skills. Fewer reading teachers have acknowledged the possibilities inherent in using writing activities for developing reading skills (Stotsky, 1983). One exception was reading teacher Marie Dionisio (1983) who implemented a composing process remedial reading program. Traditional remedial reading instruction was replaced with daily writing. Dionisio showed her students that writing caused them to read for a variety of purposes. Critical reading and writing skills were developed in personal and functional ways. Dionisio reported that the students became more able readers and writers.

Students who are reading and writing purposefully are engaged in making choices. Composing and comprehending involve the element of choosing. Rosenblatt (1983) stated, "Reading consists of a continuous stream of choices on the reader's part" (p. 124). Readers formulate expectations, speculate, predict, look forward, look backward, accept, and reject what they read as they interact with the author in a dynamic process (Hubbard, 1985). Writers do the same. They determine their purpose, point of view, audience, rhetorical stance, and an appropriate mode of discourse. Both readers and writers operate as craftsmen working their craft.

Gebhard (1983) posed the question, "Why should reading specialists teach writing?" Her argument for the inclusion of both components in successful reading and writing programs was based on the fact that both processes are language/thinking processes through which students learn and grow. Gebhard contended that an effective writing program is essential to any school reading program. She suggested several elements which are necessary for a successful writing program including: real audiences for students to address; consequential writing tasks; and experience with a variety of modes of discourse. Research showed that in both the United States and in England writing for audiences beyond the teacher about self-selected topics rarely happened (United Kingdom, 1975; Applebee & Langer, 1984).

Britton (1975) and his colleagues investigated the writing development of adolescents in the United Kingdom. The study showed that students wrote primarily for the teacher-as-examiner rather than for themselves, peers, or to the teacher as a reader, fellow-writer, or editor. The findings supported the work of Applebee (1981, 1984) and his colleagues who reported similar results. In a national study of writing at the secondary level, the researchers sought to describe problems students faced in learning to write, and to assess the instruction in writing that secondary students received. The researchers concluded, "Students wrote too infrequently, engaged at best trivially in a

composing process, and saw little point of relevance in any of the tasks they were asked to do" (Applebee, 1984, p. 170).

Missing in the majority of the writing was a reason for writing beyond meeting the requirements. The results indicated that students filled in the blanks with missing words and generally repeated material presented by the teacher rather than integrating information for themselves. Little writing occurred in the context of purposeful communication. Writing was used to assess previous learning rather than to explore new ideas.

The literature suggested that a similar situation existed in reading instruction. In 1981, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) revealed that 85 percent of all 13-year-olds could correctly complete a multiple choice check on comprehension, but only 15 percent could write an acceptable sentence summarizing the paragraph read. The learners were not able to reconstruct the structure and meaning of ideas expressed by others.

Reading and writing are interdependent processes necessary to one another and beneficial to one another. Children learning language need to be reading and writing (Holt & Vacca, 1984). It is as Jensen (1984) stated,

> The function of both reading and writing is communication. Both processes require similar abilities, similar analysis and synthesis--comparing and contrasting, connecting and re-evaluating, and the same weighing and judging of ideas. (p. 4).

As senders of messages, we are composers; as receivers we are comprehenders, engaged in a communication process.

That language processes share common roots was clearly shown by Loban (1976) who found in his 13-year study of students' language development that children who excelled in one language process tended to excel in others. Instruction in reading and writing has generally failed to focus on the processes that reading and writing share. It has failed to integrate in the following ways that Moffett and Wagner (1983) described:

> The best way for the receiver to learn to comprehend is to compose. Communication is a game like any other in some respects. To play well you have to play all roles in it. You cannot be a good fielder in baseball if you are not also a base runner, because to know which teammate to throw the ball to you must know what the runner is most likely to do. This is why a good theory of language arts should make clear that composition and comprehension are equal and reciprocal. Chess players role-play each other in order to read each other's mind, and that is what readers and writers have to do. A learner needs to practice all roles and relations of the communication structure. (pp. 10-11)

Research in the last 10 years has contributed to the discussion of reading and writing as related processes. There have also been significant contributions by earlier theorists such as Vygotsky and Rosenblatt (cited in Jensen, 1984) who have argued for decades that we compose meaning, whether we are reading or writing, in order to create a coherent text from our discrete experiences, memories, and associations. The reviewed literature showed reading and writing were complementary processes; that

"the more students used reading and writing together, the more they learned from them both" (Jensen, 1984, p. 4).

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ERIC Digest

# Dialogue Journals

Teachers who want to involve every student, even the most reluctant, in a literacy practice which unites reading and writing and encourages thinking and reflection, may want to consider incorporating dialogue journals into their classroom practice. Dialogue journals use writing as a genuine means of communication between each student and the teacher, to get things done in the common life they share in the classroom.

## What Is a Dialogue Journal?

A dialogue journal is a bound composition book in which each student carries on a private written conversation with the teacher for an extended period of time (school year, semester). Unlike much school-assigned writing, which is often only for purposes of evaluation, dialogue journals are *functional, interactive,* mostly about *self-generated topics,* and deeply embedded in the continuing life of the classroom. Both persons write to each other in an informal, direct style about topics of mutual interest, usually on a daily basis at elementary level, two or three times a week for older students. In a school year, even primary students can fill several composition books.

Dialogue journals serve as a bridge between natural spoken conversation, with its participants and turns, and the traditional classroom tasks of essay and report writing. They also allow students to develop more coherent self-expression and a personal "voice"—both essential aspects of writing which are often lost when basic composition skills are stressed.

Dialogue journals were developed over many years by a sixth-grade teacher, Leslie Reed, in Los Angeles, to meet several needs—to get to know her students better, to get feedback on lessons, to improve classroom discipline, and to involve each student in meaningful reading and writing. Extensive classroom observations and text analyses of dialogue journals have been conducted with both native and nonnative speakers of English (Staton 1980; Staton et al. 1987; Kreeft et al. 1985). They are now being used with first- through sixth-graders, with second language learners, with high school and college students in various content areas (Atwell 1984) and with special education populations (Baites et al. 1986).

Some brief excerpts from dialogue journals in Leslie Reed's class are helpful for understanding their conversational, interactive nature.

*Gordon:* *I did terrible on the math homework from last night. Math was totally terrible. I hate math. I really do hate it!*

*Mrs. R.:* *Come on! Give yourself a chance. You hate every new math idea and in a couple of days you're saying "I like this—it's easy!" You'll catch on—let me help!*

*Gordon:* *That is not true! I did not say that about fractions—did I?*

* * * * * *

*Janinne:* *I wish that I didn't win the Spelling Bee. I know I should be happy about winning but I feel worse than I ever did . . . I feel very much as if the whole world is against me. Even what I thought were my best of friends. The people I trusted now hate me. Why can't they understand?*

*Mrs. R:* *It is difficult to understand—and I understand and share your weird feelings! . . . It is most difficult to be a good loser! Somehow being a loser you feel better if you can criticize or "tear down" the winner. The act of destroying the winner makes a poor loser feel better.*

Although each entry is brief, from a few sentences to a page in length, the same topics tend to be discussed and elaborated on for several days, creating extended writing opportunities. Such writing works best when teachers understand the need for students to "own" their writing, allowing students to write about whatever concerns or topics they feel are important on a given day. Students ask questions, complain about lessons, describe what happened on the playground or at home, reflect on why things happen, express personal feelings—in other words, they use written language in all the purposeful ways they use their spoken language.

## What Are Some of the Benefits to Students?

Dialogue journals create a one-to-one relationship between student and teacher in which both academic and personal concerns may be discussed. The journals represent a concrete application of Vygotsky's theory that learning of functional human activities occurs first through the learner's cooperative participation in accomplishing tasks with a more experienced partner. What the learner can do with assistance today can be done unaided in the future. By creating a dialogue setting, the teacher supports the student's emerging reading and writing competencies and the acquisition of more complex reasoning skills (Kreeft 1984; Staton 1984).

But dialogue journals are not a method of instruction in specific skills; they provide opportunities to use newly acquired abilities in writing and reading. As with any truly individualized practice, each student benefits in a different way. Research has shown some of the following benefits:

1. Opportunities to engage in reflection about experiences and to think together with an adult about choices, problems, and ideas (Staton 1984).
2. Opportunities to engage in a natural, purposeful way in different kinds of writing—narration, description and argumentation, even poetry (Kreeft et al. 1985; Staton et al. 1987), and to use all the functions of language.



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3. Opportunities to read a personalized text—that is, the teacher's written responses—about topics the student has initiated. The teacher's writing may often be more advanced and complex than textbooks that students are assigned to read (Gambrell 1985; Staton 1986).

Teachers of younger children find the dialogues particularly helpful in early stages of literacy instruction. The interactive dialogue, with just a few sentences each day, makes use of the young child's developed competence in oral language, as shown in this dialogue between a child (who is not yet a "reader," according to standardized tests) and her teacher, Marley Casagrande of Fairfax County.

*Kelly:* *I like the little red hen and Dick and Jane. I have problems some times Well I have this problem it is I am not very god on my writing.*

*Mrs. C..* *I think you are a good writer. Keep on trying. I like the Little Red Hen, too, Kelly. Keep on writing!*

*Kelly:* *Oh kay. Do you have a problem. if you do I will help you and what are you going to be for Halloween.*

*Mrs. C.:* *I am going to be a farmer. I will wear overalls and a straw hat. Everybody has problems, Kelly. Some problems are big and some are small. One of my small problems is I can't stop eating chocolate when I see it.*

Studies also show that the more reluctant and least proficient writers are motivated to write in dialogue journals, and that this motivation can transfer to other writing tasks (Hays and Bahruth 1985). Over time, student entries increase in length, become more fluent, and show greater competency in focusing on a topic and elaborating on it (Staton et al. 1986).

For the ESL learner, there is an added benefit in this daily, continuous conversation: the teacher's responses provide clear, comprehensible language for students to absorb subconsciously as a model for language acquisition (Kreeft et al. 1985). Teachers become competent at writing to an optimally challenging level for each student, varying their language to ensure comprehension (Kreeft et al. 1985).

Students have their own way of explaining the benefits of dialogue journals to themselves:

> The worksheets make you answer questions, but the dialogue journal makes *me* ask the questions, and then the teacher helps me think about possible answers. (Staton 1984)

## What about the Time It Takes?

Incorporating dialogue journals into a teacher's daily schedule does take time, but that time is also useful for planning the next day's lessons, based in part on the information the dialogue journals provide. Teachers find that they enjoy responding in the journals and look forward to this time.

A second major benefit for teachers is that the dialogue journals seem to improve classroom management and discipline. The journals are a long-range technique for helping individual students learn how to manage their own actions. Teachers report that the individual dialogues help them reach students who are discipline problems or are often absent.

*Dialogue,* a newsletter on dialogue journals, is available from CLEAR (Center for Language Education and Research at the Center for Applied Linguistics), 1118 22nd Street NW, Washington, DC 20037. The list of several handbooks on the subject is now available (Baites et al. 1986).

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# Language Across the Curriculum

"Language across the curriculum" means basically two things. First, it means that gaining power in all the modes of language—writing, reading, speaking, and listening—must take place in every school course and at every school level, if this growth is to be deep and substantial. This meaning rejects the notion that the diverse uses of language are best learned in specific "skills" courses in, for example, English or speech. Second, "language across the curriculum" stresses the interrelationship of the modes: one learns to write as one learns to speak as one learns to read and listen. Each ability, therefore, improves to the extent that all are exercised. This second meaning rejects the teaching of, for example, writing or reading in relative isolation from the other. Ultimately, these two meanings of language across the curriculum come together in a third: the inseparableness of language, thinking, and learning. If we do not apply the full range of our language resources to our learning of any subject, then we stifle thought, conscious and unconscious, and so deprive ourselves of more than the most superficial understanding.

## History and Theory

Language across the curriculum is hardly a new idea. Teachers in every age have seen that learning flourishes in rich environments that regularly challenge students to manipulate ideas through writing and through talk between teacher and student, parent and child, peer and peer. Furthermore, it has probably never been doubted that the ability to communicate is profoundly connected to the desire to share and acquire knowledge. After all, teachers and textbook writers at all levels have tried to make language instruction "interesting." Model essays, speech and discussion topics, and even workbook sentences—all are presumably chosen (though not always successfully) to excite the wonder and curiosity of the student. Nevertheless, the very fact that so much has been done to fabricate a learning context for language instruction shows that language across the curriculum, if not a new idea, was for a time submerged. Clearly, school curricula became divided—for various reasons—into "content" and "skills" courses, and educators created the circumstances out of which language across the curriculum would have to reemerge as a fresh concept.

Much credit for this resurgence belongs to the British Schools Council Project in Writing Across the Curriculum, which from the mid-1960s onward studied how writing—and talk—were learned and used in schools throughout the United Kingdom. In a series of books (e.g., Britton 1970, and Martin et al. 1976), the Schools Council Project reported that the vast majority of school-based talking and writing was not "genuine communication," in which one person tries to convey new knowledge to another, but was mere giving back of information to the teacher in the role of judge. This "bogus" communication not only limited drastically the student's use of language, but produced dull, inauthentic responses. Conversely, when students were encouraged to write for audiences who would be interested in learning something new from the student (for example, readers of the school newspaper), researchers found the writing more lively and engagement with the topic more intense. Likewise, in language-rich classes, such as science labs where teams of students freely conversed in order to solve problems raised by an experiment, scripts showed that the give-and-take sparked varied language uses, including speculation and argument, plus the desire to repeat experiments or try new ones in order to answer new questions.

In the United States, Janet Emig (1977) reinforced the Schools Council conclusions by bringing to bear on the issue of language and learning the discoveries of linguistics and cognitive psychology. Vygotsky (1962), Kelly (1969), Bruner (1971), and Jaynes (1977) had found close correlation between verbalizing, in speech and writing, and the ability to assimilate perceptions. Particularly important was the recognition that language itself, whether read or heard, could be understood only if the individual translated the messages of others into his or her own words. Thus, conviction of the usefulness of language as a tool of learning grew.

Meanwhile, research on written composition began giving overwhelming evidence of the importance of talk in the development of writing ability. Britton (1967, 1975), in conceptualizing writing as a "process," defined "expressive writing," a form nearest to talk, as the matrix out of which more sophisticated written communication necessarily developed. He and other members of the Schools Council Project, as well as Moffett (1968), gave examples of classrooms in which the cultivation of many forms of discourse led to writing that showed fluency and awareness of audience. Writers such as Macrorie (1977) and Elbow (1973) demonstrated that talk *about* writing, especially within small groups of writers, could spark livelier, more coherent writing. Further studies of the speaking-writing connection have been brought together by Kroll and Vann (1981).

## Implications for Teaching: Faculty Training

One meaning emphatically *not* implied by language across the curriculum is that the content area teacher must also become a specialist in the teaching of speech, a specialist in the teaching of writing, and so forth. What is required is that teachers look for ways to increase or vary the language experiences that will help students understand and explore the subject matter of the course. As language-across-the-curriculum workshops continually demonstrate, teachers in every field are already creating language-rich environments. Most of their techniques can be applied rather easily by their colleagues (Fulwiler and Young 1982, Griffin 1982, Thaiss 1983).

Typically, these ideas and practices are disseminated through inservice workshops or institutes. Beginning in the 1970s, federal, state, and local sponsorship of faculty training programs, particularly at the college level, has encouraged language across the curriculum to proliferate in the United States, with special emphasis on the uses and improvement of writing. For K-12 teachers, leadership in language across the curriculum has been taken by the 102 sites of the National Writing Project, which has expanded its inservice network to include teachers in all fields. Summer seminars sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities at Beaver College (Penn.) have also contributed to the colleges-schools liaison in writing across the curriculum.

In the cross-curricular course conducted by the National Writing Project sites, faculty training occurs in two reinforcing ways: (1) NWP-trained teachers from different fields, for example, history and physics, conduct presentations on successful language-across-the-curriculum practices in their classrooms; and (2) class members practice writing-and-



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speaking-to-learn techniques, such as learning logs and focused small-group discussions, throughout the semester. Many such courses are set up for the faculty of a single school, to insure the continuing exchange of ideas and often to initiate school-wide curriculum reforms. Though the contributions of language arts and English specialists are almost always important in these faculty-training programs, whether in colleges or schools, most programs are geared toward developing an interdisciplinary focus, with ongoing leadership coming from diverse departments.

## Implications for Teaching: Techniques

In accordance with writing-process theory and the pioneering British research, the most successful language-and-learning practices tend to promote relatively unpressured expression, emphasizing techniques that encourage imagination and intuition. Journals and logs, small-group projects, teacher-student dialogues, and role playing are popular devices. Traditional content-area assignments such as research papers and laboratory reports are reinterpreted in terms of process theory, so that the research paper may become an "I-Search" project (Macrorie 1980), with significant expressive writing and classroom interaction, while the lab report may be divided into steps—method, observations, analysis—with each successive portion discussed by class groups.

Student journals of various types have been particularly powerful, and popular, learning tools. Regular writing to record or to analyze speculatively has long been practiced by professionals in many fields; thus, teachers tend to take readily to this form of instruction. In process terms, journals (often called learning logs, reader response logs, or any of a number of other names) encourage and teach expressive writing. Entries can also become the basis for more formal papers, when students' writing is carried through revision and editing stages. As a learning tool, the journal provides ample practice for translation of reading assignments or lectures, as well as labs and other kinds of experience, into the writer's own words; thus the journal can improve reading and listening comprehension (Wotring and Tierney 1982).

Journals are also adaptable to more- or less-structured learning situations. Teachers can make the journal an open-ended daily or weekly assignment, or they can use the journal for speculative answers to specific study questions. Some teachers ask students to sharply focus their entries on analysis of reading, lectures, or experiments; others want their students to exploit the journal's power as an emotional, psychological release (Progoff 1975). Many use the journal, with entries voluntarily read aloud in class, as a spur to class discussion, while other teachers maintain a separate "journal dialogue" with each student in writing (Staton 1984).

The teacher's response to and evaluation of journals, as of other popular language-across-the-curriculum devices, is crucial to their effectiveness. The Schools Council research gave early evidence that expressive writing, like oral brainstorming, would fail if teachers did not continually nurture students' risk taking in analysis or speculation. Using the journal as a facts quiz or marking entries for mechanical errors would defeat its purpose. Guarding students' privacy, by allowing them to withhold certain entries and by never demanding that students read entries aloud, also seems essential. On the other hand, since teachers often find expressive forms new to their students, it is important to show students how to make the most of the freedom to interpret and imagine that these forms offer them.

## Implications for Curriculum Change

In most schools and colleges with language-across-the-curriculum programs, change has meant more variety in how language is used and learning accomplished. Where language across the curriculum has affected school programs, this change has taken such forms as increases in team-taught courses, cooperative relationships among sections of English and sections of other subjects, or the use of "writing intensive" courses in content areas to fulfill composition requirements. In some instances it has meant the full interweaving of all language instruction into the learning of such subjects as history, art, mathematics, and science. Full applications of language across the curriculum have been most smoothly undertaken in schools with a history of interdisciplinary planning and in the all-subjects classroom in the elementary grades. In whatever setting it occurs and however deeply it affects structure, language across the curriculum promotes the fruitful, invigorating exchange of perspectives and methods among teachers who all too often have been strangers across the curricular walls.

Christopher Thaiss, George Mason University

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ERIC

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**1984**

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Task #1

## Goal Statement

**Your Name:**_____

**Course #:**_____

**Learning package:**_____

The purpose of writing a goal statement is to create an expectation for yourself, to establish a purpose that you can check when you have finished reviewing the package of materials. It should be used in conjunction with your reaction statement--the commentary that you will make after working your way through the materials in the learning package.

**Directions:** This is a pre-reading activity. Think about the topic of this package and then look at the various materials, primarily reviewing their headlines and subheads. What does that review prompt you to want to discover through this package?

Write a goal statement of no more than one paragraph that includes the questions that you want answered or the kinds of applications that you hope the package will help you accomplish in your work. Attached please find examples of representative goal statements submitted by former students.

Mail a copy of your goal statement to your instructor. Please keep a copy for yourself because your reaction statement should be based partly on the goal statement.

**My Goal Statement for this Package**

Please mail a copy of this form to:

Carl B. Smith
150 Smith Research Center
Indiana University
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698



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## Examples of Goal Statements

It is my expectation that this learning package will direct me in new directions so that I may improve my instruction in the area of vocabulary. I would like to know when it is best to introduce new vocabulary words. I would also like to gain information about new methods one might use when introducing new vocabulary. I expect to read about some of the newest research related to vocabulary instruction. It is also expected that tested methods will be described and examined. I would hope that these articles would help me improve how I teach so that my students will benefit and become better readers.

Following the study of this package, I expect to increase my understanding of computer usage in reading development, learn how to integrate computers into reading and writing instruction for learning impaired students, and make decisions on the usefulness of computer games in the classroom.

Following completion of this package I intend to:
1)Identify the components of a formal reading program evaluation.
2)Analyze the characteristics of an effective reading program.
3)Develop evaluation strategies that will improve the monitoring of my program objectives.

Task #2

**Reaction Statement**

You are asked to type a four-page reaction to this learning package as a way of firming up your sense of what you find interesting, important, or beneficial in this group of materials. You should construct this reaction with your previously established goal statement in mind.

Given below are a number of prompts to indicate the kinds of questions that you might wish to answer in developing this reaction. You may use other questions than those that are here listed. We anticipate that your reaction will be approximately four typewritten, double-spaced pages. Please use the following format in heading your paper.

Reaction

**Your Name:**_____

**Course #:**_____

**Learning Package:**_____

**Reaction Prompts**

1. Were your goals realized, and how do you know? (Refer to your goal statement.)

2. What important or beneficial ideas did you find in these materials? (Please cite the articles.)

3. Are there trends or concerns in the materials that bother you? Are there those that you agree with? Discuss. (Please use the annotated bibliography and cite ideas from it.)

4. What ideas did you want to try in your daily work world? Describe how you could apply these ideas?

**Application Project**

If you decide to use this topic for one of your two application projects, you may want to spend more time thinking about ways that you could explore one or more of these ideas in your work.

When you have finished your statement, please mail it to:

Carl B. Smith
150 Smith Research Center
Indiana University
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698

Task #3

## Application Project

As you select your two application projects, use the following guidelines:

1. **Formulate a question** that you would like to answer regarding this topic. (For example, can my slow readers use some of the self-monitoring strategies discussed in these materials?) A question often helps to clarify the kinds of information that you will collect or the kinds of evidence that you will use to convince a reader that you are pursuing an interesting question.

2. **Describe with as much detail** as is needed for a reader to understand what you did, what materials you used, what major procedures you used, what evidence you were looking for, in order to answer your question.

3. **Gather evidence** from your students or from teachers to show samples of the kinds of work or the kinds of interactions that were taking place. These samples may be your written observations, sample student papers, photographs, activity sheets, book titles, statistical data, or any other kind of evidence that demonstrates the reality of your inquiry.

4. **Write a summary** of your plan and of your conclusions. The summary should be coherent and clear so a person who was not on site can understand what you attempted and can appreciate the conclusions that you drew.

5. **Send a report** that includes a summary of your plan, sample evidence of what you found, a brief analysis of the evidence, and the conclusions that you

6. **Provide a cover page** that gives your name, address, course number, topic of learning package, and topic of your project. We will mail you a critique of your work. Send your report to:

   Carl B. Smith
   150 Smith Research Center
   Indiana University
   Bloomington, IN 47408-2698

**Course Number**_____ **Date**_____

**Package Title**_____

| Statements | Strongly Agree | Agree | Uncertain | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. This package will help me do my job better. | | | | | |
| 2. The pace of the package was too fast. | | | | | |
| 3. The package's directions were confusing. | | | | | |
| 4. It was easy to follow the directions given in the package. | | | | | |
| 5. The package was too easy. | | | | | |
| 6. The package was too long. | | | | | |
| 7. The package should include more articles and documents to read. | | | | | |
| 8. I didn't know the meaning of many words used in the package. | | | | | |
| 9. The lecture explicated the topic of the package. | | | | | |
| 10. The package's objectives were clear from the start. | | | | | |
| 11. The package's teaching points were clear. | | | | | |

What did you like best about the package?

What did you like least about the package?

How would you improve the package?

Please list other topics you would be interested in studying through our program.

Name (optional)_____

Position_____

Years Taught_____

Please mail a copy of this form to:

Carl B. Smith
150 Smith Research Center
Indiana University
Bloomington, IN 47408-2698

# ERIC/RCS

# Selected Abstracts from the ERIC Database

**ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading & Communication Skills**
**Indiana University**
**Bloomington, Indiana**
**(812) 855-5847**



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## Sample ERIC Abstract

AN ED289160
AU Binkley,-Marilyn-R.; And-Others
TI Becoming a Nation of Readers: What Parents Can Do.
CS Heath (D.C.) and Co., Lexington, Mass,; Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
PY 1988
AV What Parents Can Do, Consumer Information Center, Pueblo, CO 81009 ($.50).
NT 40 p.; For Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading, see ED 253 865.
PR EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DE Beginning-Reading; Literacy-Education; Parent-Attitudes; Parent-Child-Relationship; Preschool-Children; Primary-Education; Reading-Aloud-to-Others; Reading-Attitudes; Recreational-Reading; Written-Language
DE *Literacy-; *Parent-Influence; *Parent-Participation; *Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Processes
ID Reading-Motivation
AB Intended for parents and based on the premise that parents are their children's first and most important teachers, this booklet is a distillation of findings from the 1984 report of the Commission on Reading, "Becoming a Nation of Readers." The introduction reiterates the Commission's conclusions (1) that a parent is a child's first tutor in unraveling the puzzle of written language; (2) that parents should read to preschool children and informally teach them about reading and writing; and (3) that parents should support school-aged children's continued growth as readers. Chapter 1 defines reading as the process of constructing meaning from written texts, a complex skill requiring the coordination of a number of interrelated sources of information. Chapter 2, on the preschool years, focuses on talking to the young child, reading aloud to the preschooler, and teaching children about written language. The third chapter, on beginning reading, counsels parents on what to look for in good beginning reading programs in schools, and how to help the child with reading at home. The fourth chapter, on developing readers and making reading an integral part of learning, offers suggestions for helping the child succeed in school and for encouraging reading for fun. The afterword calls on teachers, publishers, and school personnel, as well as parents, to participate actively in creating a literate society. The booklet concludes with a list of organizations that provide practical help or publications for parents.

## Interpretation of ERIC Abstract Field Identifiers

AN ERIC accession number (Use this number when ordering microfiche and paper copies.)
AU Author(s)
TI Title
CS Corporate source
PY Actual or approximate publication date
AV Source and price (availability)
NT Pagination and additional information (such as legibility or related documents)
PR Indicates availability of document from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service
DE Descriptors-indexing terms from the *Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors* which indicate important concepts in the document
ID Identifiers-indexing terms not included in the *Thesaurus of ERIC Descriptors*
AB Summary

AN: EJ371751
AU: Bauso,-Jean
TI: The Use of Free-Writing and Guided Writing to Make Students Amenable to Poems.
PY: 1988
JN: Exercise-Exchange; v33 n2 p32-35 Spr 1988
AV: UMI
DE: Higher-Education; High-Schools; Poetry-; Secondary-Education; Student-Attitudes; Writing-Instruction
DE: *Reading-Strategies; *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Contends that students' negative attitudes toward poetry can be modified by using writing as a prereading strategy and by using writing during the process of reading. (MS)

AN: EJ379921
AU: Blanchard,-Jay
TI: Plausible Stories: A Creative Writing and Story Prediction Activity.
PY: 1988
JN: Reading-Research-and-Instruction; v28 n1 p60-65 Fall 1988
AV: UMI
DE: Elementary-Secondary-Education; Writing-Exercises
DE: *Creative-Writing; *Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Processes; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Instruction; *Writing-Processes
AB: Describes "Plausible Stories," an activity which uses creative writing and story predictions to help teachers exploit the interactive nature of the processes of reading and writing. (MS)

AN: EJ359146
AU: Blatt,-Gloria; Rosen,-Lois-Matz
TI: Writing: A Window on Children and Their Reading.
PY: 1987
JN: English-Quarterly; v20 n2 p121-30 Sum 1987
DE: Children-; Content-Analysis; Reading-Research; Student-Writing-Models; Teaching-Methods; Theory-Practice-Relationship; Writing-Research
DE: *Creative-Writing; *Reading-Processes; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Processes
AB: Explores the connection between reading and writing implicit in children's creative writing and highlights the similarity between processes of reading and writing. (JC)

AN: EJ368637
AU: Brookes,-Gerry-H.
TI: Exploring the World Through Reading and Writing.

PY: 1988
JN: Language-Arts; v65 n3 p245-53 Mar 1988
AV: UMI
T: Themed Issue: Literary Discourse as a Way of Knowing.
DE: Elementary-Secondary-Education; Program-Development; Reading-Skills; Teaching-Methods; Writing-Skills
DE: *Instructional-Improvement; *Metaphors-; *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Supports the argument that reading and writing ought to be taught together "so closely that students can't tell where one leaves off and the other begins" and seeks to persuade the reluctant teacher by (1) giving reasons for interweaving composition and literature seamlessly, and (2) outlining one procedure for doing so. (H)

AN: EJ367199
AU: Brown,-David-L.; Briggs,-L.-D.
TI: Collaborative Learning: Bridging the Gap between Reading and Writing.
PY: 1987
JN: Reading-Improvement; v24 n4 p278-81 Win 1987
AV: UMI
DE: Basal-Reading; Instructional-Effectiveness; Primary-Education
DE: *Beginning-Reading; *Literacy-Education; *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Asserts that the reading and writing relationship must be reinforced in classroom methodology, and offers seven guidelines for connecting reading and writing in children's literacy development. (MM)

AN: EJ377404
AU: Clarke,-Linda-K.
TI: Invented Versus Traditional Spelling in First Graders' Writings: Effects on Learning to Spell and Read.
PY: 1988
JN: Research-in-the-Teaching-of-English; v22 n3 p281-309 Oct 1988
AV: UMI
DE: Creative-Writing; Elementary-Education; Grade-1; Low-Achievement; Reading-Improvement; Spelling-Instruction; Writing-Improvement; Writing-Research
DE: *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Spelling-
AB: Tests the claims of proponents of invented spelling by comparing the progress of children encouraged to use invented spelling with those encouraged to use traditional spelling in their creative writing. (RAE)

AN: ED297318

AU: Clifford,-Geraldine-Joncich
TI: A Sisyphean Task: Historical Perspectives on the Relationship between Writing and Reading Instruction. Technical Report o. 7.
CS: California Univ., Berkeley. Center for the Study of Writing.
PY: 1987
AV: Center for the Study of Writing, School of Education, University of California, Berkeley, CA 92720 ($3.50, plus sales tax for California residents; make check payable to Regents of U.C.).
T: 51 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DE: Cultural-Context; Curriculum-Research; Educational-Research; Educational-Trends; Elementary-Secondary-Education; English-Instruction; Higher-Education; Holistic-Approach; Integrated-Curriculum; Language-Arts; Literacy-; Progressive-Education; Theory-Practice-Relationship
DE: *Educational-History; *Educational-Practices; *Educational-Theories; *Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Instruction
AB: Based on the thesis that cycles of concern for an integrated, holistic approach to English language instruction have periodically emerged in reaction to historical forces that are essentially fragmenting in their effects, this thematic report explores events in 20th-century American educational theory, research, and practice that deal with English language education. Two fundamental and enduring facts about English education in the schools which the report examines are the subordination of writing to reading and the other language skills and the separation of language skills from one another--particularly the isolation of reading from writing. Using perspectives drawn from American educational and social history, the report identifies five forces--the democratization of schooling, the professionalization of educators, technological change, the pragmatic character of American culture, and liberationist ideologies--and probes their analytically separable but interacting influences on English language education. Following a summary of the evidence of the assertions that writing has been dominated by reading in schools and that writing and reading have been separated for most of their histories, the report provides illustrations of the prevailing opinion that integration in language education is the proper approach, giving rise to cycles of reform aimed at such integration. It then gives an overview of the 19th century emergence of English as an identifiable subject of the school curriculum, and addresses the ways in which the forces cited promoted both separation and integration of the teaching of writing and reading. (One hundred ninety-six footnotes are attached.) (KA)

AN: EJ373220
AU: Frager,-Alan; Hahn,-Amos
TI: Turning Contemporary Reading Research into Instructional Practice.
PY: 1988
JN: Reading-Horizons; v28 n4 p263-71 Sum 1988

AV: UMI
DE: Theory-Practice-Relationship
DE: *Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Research;
*Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Text-Structure
AB: Highlights contemporary reading research as well as some implied instructional practices in four areas, including direct teacher explanati... reading-writing connection, top-level text structure, and main ide... ...ntification. (ARH)

AN: EJ35...071
AU: Harp,-Bill
TI: "Why are Your Kids Writing during Reading Time?"
PY: 1987
JN: Reading-Teacher; v41 n1 p88-89 Oct 1987
AV: UMI
DE: Elementary-Education; Reading-Difficulties; Student-Attitudes;
Teaching-Methods
DE: *Reading-Improvement; *Reading-Skills;
*Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Theory-Practice-Relationship;
*Writing-Skills
AB: Presents a hypothetical situation of an elementary school principal's concern at students writing during reading time, and offers a possible teacher's response with information about the direct tie between writing and reading improvement. (JC)

AN: ED302854
AU: Heise,-Lori-L.
TI: The Effects of Writing on Elementary School Students' Reading Comprehension.
PY: 1988
T: 40 p.; Exit Project, Indiana University at South Bend.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DE: Annotated-Bibliographies; Cloze-Procedure; Decoding-Reading;
Elementary-Education; Outlining-Discourse; Schemata-Cognition;
Sentence-Combining; Teaching-Methods
DE: *Correlation-; *Reading-Comprehension;
*Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: To help elementary school teachers decide whether writing is beneficial to their students' comprehension, and if it is, which activities are the most effective, a study examined research which dealt with whether the writing performed by elementary school students helps them to comprehend better their own and others' written works. Included are 33 annotations in three areas: (1) studies showing the correlations between students' abilities to write and to comprehend; (2) studies on how writing exercises undertaken before or after reading another author's text affects children's comprehension; and (3) studies about the effects that written works created by the students themselves have on their comprehension. Findings conclude

that examination of these studies proves that elementary school students' writing abilities and the amount of writing they performed were highly correlated with their reading comprehension performances; studies on mapping showed it to be significantly more beneficial to comprehension than other study skills or lessons from basal readers; research conducted on the sentence-combining method demonstrated that this technique was superior in the improvement of the comprehension of elementary school students over other methods of instruction; both summarizing and outlining proved to be beneficial to elementary school students' comprehension; and students improved their comprehension when they wrote their own stories. (A glossary is included, and 41 references are attached.) (MS)

AN: EJ371758
AU: Hemming,-Heather
TI: Graduate Research: Reviews and Commentary: The Role of Reading as a Metacognitive Monitor in the Composing Process of First Grade Writers.
PY: 1987
JN: Reading-Canada-Lecture; v5 n4 p254-65 Win 1987
DE: Cognitive-Processes; Grade-1; Primary-Education; Reading-Research; Student-Writing-Models; Writing-Composition; Writing-Instruction
DE: *Metacognition-; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Processes
AB: Investigates the use or nonuse of reading as a metacognitive monitor in first graders' composing, the patterns of contexts related to conscious monitoring by reading, and the writer's awareness of the various monitoring roles that reading plays in writing. Concludes that reading to monitor during composing emerges in different contexts for different students. (MM)

AN: EJ375263
AU: Henney,-Maribeth
TI: Reading and Writing Interactive Stories.
PY: 1988
JN: Computing-Teacher; v15 n8 p45-47,60 May 1988
AV: UMI
DE: Curriculum-Development; Elementary-Education; Listening-Skills; Oral-Language; Reading-Skills; Writing-Processes; Writing-Skills
DE: *Authoring-Aids-Programing; *Computer-Assisted-Instruction; *Courseware-; *Creative-Writing; *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Describes a project designed to teach elementary students to write interactive stories using an authoring system called Story Tree. Benefits of the project are discussed, including the development of oral language, listening, reading, and writing skills; and problems with the authoring system, the writing process, and the curriculum integration are reviewed. (LRW)

AN: EJ377413
AU: Holladay,-Sylvia
TI: Integrating Reading and Writing.
PY: 1988
JN: Teaching-English-in-the-Two-Year-College; v15 n3 p187-94 Oct 1988
AV: UMI
T: Special Issue: Professional Concerns.
DE: Educational-Philosophy; Higher-Education; Reading-Skills; Writing-Skills
DE: *Metacognition-; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Teaching-Methods; *Writing-Improvement; *Writing-Instruction
AB: Shows that reading and writing are closely related. Suggests techniques for integrating these studies in the classroom by writing on open and closed topics, such as readers writing ghost chapters, constructing possible worlds, keeping a reader-response journal, and students teaching punctuation, grammar, and syntax to each other. (RAE)

AN: EJ350584
AU: Kossack,-Sharon; And-Others
TI: Use the ews.
PY: 1987
JN: Journal-of-Reading; v30 n8 p730-32 May 1987
AV: UMI
DE: Class-Activities; Group-Activities; Secondary-Education; Writing-Processes
DE: *ewspapers-; *Prewriting-; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Revision-Written-Composition; *Teaching-Methods; *Writing-for-Publication
AB: Describes newspapers as a good alternative to the traditional writing textbook and discusses how they can be used at all age levels to develop three stages of the writing process: prewriting, revision, and publishing. (JD)

AN: EJ374789
AU: Lang,-Frederick-K.
TI: Between Writers.
PY: 1988
JN: Freshman-English-ews; v16 n3 p10-16 Win-Spr 1988
AV: UMI
DE: Higher-Education; Literature-Appreciation; Teaching-Methods
DE: *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Suggests assignments and methods for personalizing students' writing about literature to help inexperienced writers learn from the authors they read. (JAD)

AN: ED286158
AU: Leavitt,-Tamara-Day
TI: Integrating Reading and Writing Instruction at the Primary Level.
PY: [1987]
TI: 12 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DE: Brainstorming-; Content-Area-Reading; Content-Area-Writing; Integrated-Curriculum; Language-Experience-Approach; Phoneme-Grapheme-Correspondence; Prewriting-; Primary-Education; Reading-Aloud-to-Others; Reading-Material-Selection; Reading-Research; Writing-Exercises; Writing-Research
DE: *Beginning-Reading; *Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Teaching-Methods; *Writing-Instruction; *Writing-Readiness
AB: Integrating reading and writing at the primary level is important because writing and then reading back what has been written gives purpose to both, and the sense of overall purpose enhances reading while the sense of audience enhances writing. Another reason for starting this integration with beginning students is that writing creates a purpose for paying attention to features of written language such as letter-sound correspondences, the ordering of letters in words, and the left-to-right nature of English print, all of which is knowledge used in reading. It also emphasizes the interdependence of reading and writing rather than creating the illusion of division between the two. Accomplishing the integration can be achieved through reading aloud and sharing writing with students often, and by encouraging all student attempts to read and write. By encouraging writing from the first day of school, teachers can avoid the resistance that often occurs when writing is introduced later in the year. Having the students read back their attempts at writing will help even the less-developed writers think of themselves as authors. Other recommended techniques include (1) writing on a broad range of topics, (2) encouraging a studio atmosphere, (3) using the language experience approach's prewriting and brainstorming activities, (4) making use of semantic mapping, (5) encouraging creativity and emphasizing the idea that there is no single right way to write about a given subject, (6) viewing revision as improvement rather than correction, (7) using webbing to integrate reading and writing across the curriculum. (A sample webbing unit and reference list are appended.) (SKC)

AN: EJ388913
AU: LoPiccolo,-MaryJo
TI: Literature and Writing: Two Sides of a Coin.
PY: 1989
JN: Perspectives-for-Teachers-of-the-Hearing-Impaired; v7 n3 p16-19 Jan-Feb 1989
DE: Elementary-Secondary-Education; Language-Experience-Approach; Reader-Response; Writing-Composition
DE: *Hearing-Impairments; *Reading-Instruction;

*Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Teaching-Methods; *Writing-Instruction
AB: An approach to language arts instruction for hearing-impaired students is described, which emphasizes expression of ideas rather than mechanics. The approach uses literature response journals and discussions to develop critical reading and writing skills, and helps students make the connection between literature study and their own writing. (JDD)

AN: EJ349001
AU: McLaughlin,-Elaine-M.
TI: QuIP: A Writing Strategy to Improve Comprehension of Expository Structure.
PY: 1987
JN: Reading-Teacher; v40 n7 p650-54 Mar 1987
AV: UMI
DE: Elementary-Education; Expository-Writing; Questioning-Techniques; Writing-Skills
DE: *Learning-Strategies; *Reading-Comprehension; *Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Instruction
AB: Provides a rationale for the reading/writing connection through a brief review of research and describes Questions into Paragraphs (QuIP), a three-step procedure designed to improve expository awareness. (FL)

AN: ED294210
AU: Meerson,-Mary-Lou
TI: Integrating the Language Arts: Alternatives and Strategies Using Trade Books as Models for Student Writing.
PY: 1988
T: 8 p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association (33rd, Toronto, Canada, May 1-6, 1988).
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DE: Content-Area-Writing; Language-Arts; Literary-Devices; Literature-Appreciation; Models-; Teaching-Methods; Writing-Improvement
DE: *Childrens-Literature; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Instruction
AB: Although teachers are often told to use literature as models for students' writing, they are rarely provided with specific suggestions on how, when, and why to use literature, or trade books, in their curriculum. Yet there are many situations in which the use of literature can be helpful to the novice writer. With pre-kindergarten or kindergarten children, teachers can help students build schema by writing books themselves. This type of schema building continues at all levels, and is assisted by books about books, such as "Harold and the Purple Crayon" and "Simon's Book." The technique of "copy change," using a story as the basis for writing a similar story, helps children

develop their personal voice, and can be used at any level. For older students who are less confident of their writing ability, books such as "How To Write Secret Codes" and "How To Draw Cartoons" are effective in easing their anxiety by providing "how to" practice. Other suggestions for employing literature as a model for student writing include using trade books to teach literary devices ("The Diary of Anne Frank" for diaries, and "Science Experiments You Can Eat" for content area writing), and writing book extensions (prologues or epilogues for books, new stories for well-known characters, or changing the setting of a story). (An annotated bibliography of trade books is appended.) (MM)

AN: ED294166
AU: Mink,-JoAnna-Stephens
TI: Integrating Reading, Writing, and Learning Theory: A Method to Our Madness.
PY: 1988
T: 12 p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication (39th, St. Louis, MO, March 17-19, 1988).
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DE: Class-Activities; Cognitive-Style; Freshman-Composition; Higher-Education; Reader-Text-Relationship; Small-Group-Instruction; Teaching-Methods; Writing-Skills
DE: *College-English; *English-Instruction; *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Within the last few years English curriculum, especially at the introductory levels, has changed so that reading and the study of literature is integrated with the learning of writing skills. Consequently, English teachers need to consider the best way to merge the two skills by drawing upon the findings of psychologists and cognition theorists to plan appropriate classroom activities. Journal-writing and small group discussions in composition and literature classes have been successful methods for merging the skills of reading, discussing, and writing. Students not only learn the commonalities of reading and writing skills but get actively involved with the text being studied through: (1) independent reading, thinking, and writing about ideas presented in literature; (2) sharing of those ideas in small and then in large groups; (3) reevaluating those ideas in after-class journal entries; and (4) articulating those ideas in formal writing assignments, papers or exams. (MHC)

AN: EJ370146
AU: Oberlin,-Kelly-J.; Shugarman,-Sherrie-L.
TI: Purposeful Writing Activities for Students in Middle School.
PY: 1988
JN: Journal-of-Reading; v31 n8 p720-23 May 1988
AV: UMI

DE: Elementary-Secondary-Education; Reading-Processes; Teaching-Methods; Writing-Instruction; Writing-Processes
DE: *Reading-Comprehension; *Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Suggests that writing helps reading comprehension only if the writer is aware of the relationship between reading and writing and if the writing is purposeful. Presents three purposeful writing activities. (ARH)

AN: ED297268
AU: Roskelly,-Hephzibah
TI: Writing To Read: The Shape of Interpretation.
PY: 1988
T: 13 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DE: Case-Studies; Critical-Reading; Higher-Education; Reader-Response; Reading-Comprehension; Reading-Processes; Writing-Instruction; Writing-Processes
DE: *Literary-Criticism; *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Writing does more than demonstrate the interpretive process active in the mind of a student, it influences and directs the interpretive process in writing. Writing to read allows the expressive dimension to find an overt, secure place in the interpretive framework of a student's learning. By examining a student's theoretical explanation of her response to Andrea Lee's "Sarah Phillips," a short novel about a young black woman growing up in the 1970s, this process is clearly revealed. The student's marginal comments, reflections, and drafts changed the way the student saw her own responses to the text by helping her to find the "speculative instruments" with which to name her developing interpretations. In this way, writing can transform reading by making it a conscious symbolic process of discovering strategies and forms. As readers confront experience in texts, they exercise the primary act of mind by symbolizing it--writing illustrates and contributes to the transformational character of that symbolization. Standing alone, neither reading to write nor writing to read completes this creative process of interpretation. Teachers should nurture the interconnectedness of reading and writing with their responses to students' works, illustrating and modeling this symbiosis with responses focusing on interpretation rather than structure. (MM)

AN: EJ350538
AU: Ruth,-Leo
TI: Reading Children's Writing.
PY: 1987
JN: Reading-Teacher; v40 n8 p756-60 Apr 1987
AV: UMI
T: Thematic Issue: The State of Assessment in Reading

DE: Elementary-Education; Language-Acquisition; Reading-Comprehension
DE: *Learning-Activities; *Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Tests;
*Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Instruction;
*Writing-Readiness
AB: otes that because reading and writing are separate but complementary aspects of a single language system, the way teachers plan activities determines the way in which children's writing helps them develop insights into their reading. (FL)

AN: EJ360658
AU: Scott,-Diana; Piazza,-Carolyn-L.
TI: Integrating Reading and Writing Lessons.
PY: 1987
JN: Reading-Horizons; v28 n1 p57-64 Fall 1987
AV: UMI
DE: Elementary-Education; Higher-Education; Language-Arts;
Teaching-Methods
DE: *College-School-Cooperation; *Integrated-Curriculum;
*Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Describes a cooperative endeavor between university and public school professionals in integrating reading and writing lessons. Describes the Developmental Reading and Writing Lesson (DRWL) program's prereading/prewriting, guided silent reading and revising, skill development and editing, and independent follow-up activities. (HTH)

AN: EJ368661
AU: Shanahan,-Timothy
TI: The Reading-Writing Relationship: Seven Instructional Principles.
PY: 1988
JN: Reading-Teacher; v41 n7 p636-47 Mar 1988
AV: UMI
DE: Elementary-Education; Instructional-Improvement; Language-Arts;
Program-Effectiveness; Reading-Skills; Teaching-Methods;
Writing-Skills
DE: *Instructional-Design; *Integrated-Curriculum;
*Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Skill-Development
AB: oting that recommendations for integrating elementary reading and writing often fail to provide adequate specific suggestions, proposes seven instructional principles based upon research on the reading-writing relationship and suggests specific techniques for each principle. (H)

AN: EJ379877
AU: Smith,-Carl
TI: Does It Help to Write about Your Reading?

PY: 1988
JN: Journal-of-Reading; v32 n3 p276-77 Dec 1988
AV: UMI
DE: Study-Skills; Writing-Skills
DE: *Reading-Comprehension; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Instruction
AB: Argues that writing promotes engagement with a text, leading to better comprehension, and that writing tasks should vary depending on the nature of the reading task. (RAE)

AN: EJ364706
AU: Stanton,-Ruth
TI: The Reader as Hero.
PY: 1987
JN: Canadian-Journal-of-English-Language-Arts; v11 n3 p56-57 Fall 1987
AV: UMI
DE: Childhood-Interests; Computer-Uses-in-Education; Creative-Writing; Elementary-Education; Reading-Instruction; Student-Attitudes
DE: *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Student-Motivation; *Teaching-Methods
AB: Suggests that reluctant learners can be motivated to read and write if the teacher writes a story in which the student is the hero. otes that students may be persuaded to write their own stories with themselves as heroes and share them with friends. (JC)

AN: ED284276
AU: Staton,-Jana
TI: Dialogue Journals. ERIC Digest.
CS: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Urbana, Ill.
PY: 1987
T: 3 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DE: Reading-Research; Writing-Research; Writing-Skills
DE: *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Teacher-Student-Relationship; *Teaching-Methods; *Writing-Improvement
AB: Dialogue journals are recommended in this digest for teachers who want to involve every student in a literacy practice that unites reading and writing and encourages thinking and reflection. The digest first explains that dialogue journals are useful because they use writing as a genuine means of communication between student and teacher. Dialogue journals then are defined as bound composition books in which each student carries on a private conversation with the teacher for an extended time. The history of these journals, which were first developed by a sixth grade teacher in California, is detailed, and sample teacher-student exchanges are also provided. The digest next explicates some of the benefits of dialogue journals to students: (1) they create a one-to-one relationship between student

and teacher in which both academic and personal concerns are discussed; (2) they provide opportunities to use newly acquired reading and writing skills; (3) they allow students to engage in reflection about experiences and to think about adult problems, choices, and ideas; (4) they give students a chance to engage in natural uses of different kinds of writing--narration, description, argumentation, even poetry; and (5) they let students read a personalized text, that is, the teacher's responses. Benefits of dialogue journals for young children, less proficient writers, and ESL students are also discussed, together with a brief justification for the time required for teachers to respond to each student. Twelve references are appended. (SKC)

AN: ED284276
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AN: EJ365837
AU: Sternglass,-Marilyn-S.
TI: Instructional Implications of Three Conceptual Models of Reading/Writing Relationships.
PY: 1987
JN: English-Quarterly; v20 n3 p184-93 Fall 1987
AV: UMI
DE: Classroom-Environment; Elementary-Secondary-Education; Instructional-Effectiveness; Models-; Reader-Text-Relationship; Reading-Comprehension; Reading-Instruction; Teaching-Methods; Theory-Practice-Relationship; Writing-Instruction
DE: *Reading-Processes; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Processes
AB: otes that varying the conceptual models of the relationship between reading and writing processes, as parallel, interactive, or transactional, has influenced instructional practices. (JC)

AN: ED296347
AU: Strange,-Rebecca-L.
TI: Audience Awareness: When and How Does It Develop? ERIC Digest o. 4, 1988.
CS: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, Bloomington, I.
PY: 1988
T: 3 p.
PR: EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DE: Audience-Analysis; Educational-Strategies; Elementary-Secondary-Education; Writing-Evaluation; Writing-Exercises
DE: *Audience-Awareness; *Classroom-Environment; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Improvement
AB: A case can be made for teachers to use audience-oriented teaching strategies that encourage children to write for a wide range of readers. Even so, questions remain about how writers, especially student writers, actually learn to consider an audience of readers when they write. Research suggests that a developmental trend exists in which children gradually develop a sense of audience in their writing. Other studies suggest that teachers can develop effective audience-oriented writing strategies only if they think carefully about their own role as an audience for their students' writing. The ERIC database contains numerous ideas for assignments and strategies that (1) encourage students to write for a range of audiences; (2) provide opportunities to receive responses from these audiences; and (3) help students learn the value of writing as a process of communication. (MS)

AN: EJ371829
TI: The Classroom Reading Teacher.

PY: 1988
JN: Reading-Teacher; v41 n4 p483-95 Jan 1988
AV: UMI
DE: Elementary-Education; Integrated-Activities; Language-Experience-Approach; Oral-Language; Readers-Theater; Reading-Comprehension; Teaching-Methods; Writing-Instruction
DE: *Language-Acquisition; *Reading-Instruction; *Reading-Writing-Relationship
AB: Describes various activities designed for use in the reading classroom, including (1) cooperative learning activities; (2) reading and writing activities; (3) ways to improve comprehension; and (4) ways to encourage independent reading. (FL)

AN: EJ371307
AU: Tiedt,-Iris-M.
TI: Reading with a Writer's Eye.
PY: 1988
JN: Learning; v16 n7 p66-68 Mar 1988
AV: UMI
DE: Elementary-Education; Learning-Activities; Literary-Devices; Vocabulary-Development
DE: *Childrens-Literature; *Literature-Appreciation; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Instruction
AB: A teacher offers suggestions for teaching students to write through examining passages, phrases, or sentences they enjoy reading. Activities include writing letters to book authors; examining characterizations; and using word pictures. A list of well-written books is included. (CB)

AN: EJ368583
AU: Walshe,-Richard-D.
TI: The Future Lies in Integration.
PY: 1987
JN: Australian-Journal-of-Reading; v10 n4 p238-42 ov 1987
T: Focus Issue: on-narrative Writing.
DE: Elementary-Secondary-Education; onfiction-; Writing-Processes
DE: *Curriculum-Development; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Writing-Instruction
AB: Argues for an integrated, developmental curriculum in which teachers teach non-narrative forms as part of children's desire to make meaning. Outlines elements of an integrated K-12 curriculum and discusses non-narrative writing and reading in relation to narrative in the context of the whole curriculum. (MM)

AN: EJ368576
AU: Wepner,-Shelley-B.
TI: Reading, Writing, and Word Processing.

PY: 1987
JN: Reading-Psychology; v8 n4 p295-309 1987
AV: UMI
DE: Computer-Assisted-Instruction; Editing-; Electronic-Equipment; Higher-Education; Keyboarding-Data-Entry; Reading-; Secondary-Education; Writing-Exercises; Writing-Skills
DE: *Computers-; *Reading-Writing-Relationship; *Revision-Written-Composition; *Word-Processing; *Writing-Composition
AB: Addresses how word processing, with its prevision, writing, and revision tools, facilitates connections between reading and writing. Suggests that with or without electronic tools, students need to be critical readers of their own writing. (JK)

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